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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a new perspective on mentoring foreign language teachers. It suggests that mentoring is an essential part of a program manager's responsibilities, but that it is important to individualize the process of mentoring if it is to be as effective as it can be. First, a definition of mentoring and issues surrounding it are discussed. Next, the key to successful mentoring--providing equal but not identical treatment--is described. The importance of recognizing style differences among individuals is addressed, including differences in personality type, cognition, preferred modality, conceptual tempo, and biology. Mentors who differentiate--mentor in style--report that the results are well worth the effort. In using style information to determine how to proceed with mentoring each individual teacher, some program directors prefer to have teachers first take one of the several available style inventories and then to discuss the validity and nature of the results with the individual teachers. Other program directors prefer to observe teachers and then to discuss their perceptions of styles with individuals. For a style-mediated program, it is recommended that style terminology or "type talk" become a part of the professional life of the program. Also recommends talking about style differences with the teaching team, building shared terminology that is nondiscriminatory in its characterization of personal differences, and providing an individualized approach to mentoring while also providing for the mentoring of the entire team of teachers in the program. (Contains 48 references and 11 notes.) (Author/VWL)

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Mentoring in Style: Using Style Information to Enhance Mentoring of Foreign Language Teachers

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Although priorities have been shifting over the past decade, in many institutions mentoring is still considered an optional duty of program supervisors. In fact, in a survey of educational beliefs held by community college administrators, the importance of mentoring ranked significantly lower than issues of funding, politicking, and community involvement (Seagren et al. 1994). This is unfortunate because mentoring is one of the most important functions of any language program director, and program quality can often be traced to quality of mentoring (Leaver forthcoming).

The growing, but still limited, literature on mentoring that we have encountered often consists of generic platitudes or lists of do's and don'ts. In such cases, mentoring is seen as a non-unique series of activities or actions taken with any new teacher. Even the better-known works in L2 related to program direction and TA development tend to look at global, staff-wide issues, making across-the-board suggestions for both program management and, where discussed, mentoring. (See, for example, Arens 1991; Azevedo 1990; Benseler and Cronjaeger 1990; Dryer 1997; Magnan 1993;[1] Pérez 1993; Rahilly 1992; Waldinger 1993.)

This paper suggests an alternative view. Not only do we consider mentoring to be an essential part of a language program manager's responsibilities, but we also find a need to individualize the process of mentoring if it is to be as effective as it can be.

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Definition of Mentoring and Issues Surrounding It

Mentoring is defined as "the process in which successful individuals go out of their way to help others establish goals and develop the skills to reach them" (The Mentoring Group 2000). The Mentoring Group (1997) and the National Mentoring Partnership (2000b) offer useful discussions on how to succeed in building positive mentoring relationships. The goals of new teachers at the post-secondary level are generally multiple, but three strands can be easily discerned: (1) to gain tenure or other professional advancement; (2) to become a good researcher or specialist in some aspect of language, literature, culture, or linguistics; and (3) to become a good classroom teacher within a given program. It is the last goal that this paper addresses, specifically, mentoring new foreign language teachers into becoming satisfied and effective classroom teachers within the foreign language program and team in which they are working. (Such mentoring may well result in teachers' ability to transfer readily to other programs or enhance their career options, but attention to those aspects of mentoring, while important, are not the focus of this paper.).

Although much is known in business circles and in theory and research about effective mentoring, good mentoring unfortunately fails to occur for many new teachers of foreign languages. Why does adequate mentoring fail to happen in so many instances? The National Mentoring Partnership (2000a) provides a few key reasons. First, there is often insufficient support for mentoring in programs. Second, schools and universities, along with other institutions, allot insufficient resources to mentoring. Third, potential mentors typically lack access to information about how to serve as mentors. Fourth, a high attrition rates exists among mentors, often because of a lack of recognition and visibility for excellence in mentoring. Phillips-Jones (2000) underscores the last point, indicating that mentors need positive reinforcement (recognition) from mentees in order to feel satisfied and continue doing a good job at mentoring.

Another reason for difficulties is that mentoring, like marriage, frequently involves a clash of "cultures" or belief systems between two people. A recent *Psychology Today* article (Marano 2000) discusses marriage, but what is said about marriage in that article can just as readily describe the mentor-mentee relationship. Therefore, in the following passage, the word "marriage" is removed, and the phrase "mentoring relationship" is inserted in brackets.

> In any [mentoring relationship], each partner to some degree represents a different culture with different traditions and rituals and

> symbols. The two distinct sets of highly structured traditions are . . . deeply emotionally resonant. . . . [If these cultures are not understood], one or both parties is bound to feel bad. . . . The problem is, culture clash is built into the [mentoring relationship]. . . . That, however, is where the fun begins—the conflict causes electricity and the need to discuss things and compare perspectives and thus come to know one another and oneself (Marano 2000, p. 60).

A potentially serious conflict in the mentoring relationship can relate to the style of the mentor and the mentee. "Style" relates to a host of characteristics that comprise a person's individuality. Style, along with the ability to understand and deal with differences in style as part of the mentoring process, is the focus of this paper. Although mentoring in style can apply to a range of situations, this paper addresses one specific instance: the mentoring of new teachers in a university environment. The mentee referred to here is a teaching assistant (TA), part-time faculty member, or other instructor new to teaching or new to the program in which he or she is currently teaching, and the mentor is the language program director or coordinator. The venues in which mentoring can take place include individual interactions and group interactions. In each case, style plays a significant role; hence, this paper begins by defining some of the more important (in our experience) styles and explaining their general significance before proceeding to provide concrete applications to individuals and groups.

Several models for TA development have been proposed. Most include several components: pre-service workshops, methods courses, class observation, peer observation and assistance, practice teaching, reflective teaching (including the use of journals and videotapes), formative evaluation, and summative evaluation (Azevedo 1990). Such models assume that all TAs are inexperienced teachers—yet a number of TAs are experienced teachers returning to the university for an advanced degree. They also assume that all TAs are alike in their needs—another misperception. This paper does not propose any specific model but addresses the ways in which attention to style differences can inform the selection and implementation of program components, so that mentees receive the kind of mentoring they need rather than the hit-and-miss effect offered via a generic TA-development program. In short, our concern is with the quality of the mentoring process and not necessarily with the form that it takes, our assumption being that a good mentor is a chameleon and a good mentoring program may reduce to precepts but not to uniform actions and formats.

The Key to Effective Mentoring: Providing Equal, Not Identical, Treatment

One of the most frequent causes of supervisor error, according to Van Fleet (1973), is failure to treat subordinates as individuals. One could assume, then, that differentiation might be critical to successful mentoring of new teachers since faculty members are not all cut from the same piece of cloth. Differences in education and experience are usually anticipated and accepted by mentors. However, what mentors often fail to notice—to everyone's detriment—are style differences among individuals, including differences in personality type, cognition, preferred modality, conceptual tempo, and biology. Mentors who differentiate, i.e., who mentor in style, report that the results are worth the effort of learning to recognize and react to these differences.

Personality Type Differences

What constitutes the uniqueness of each "person" is, in great part, an individual personality. Today's concepts emanate most frequently from the work of Carl Jung (1971), whose theories and research have blossomed into a juncture of philosophical and sociological inquiry.[2] Recent years have seen the emergence of personality typologies manifested in two related measurement instruments that work well in mentoring: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers and Briggs 1976) and, extrapolated from the MBTI, Keirsey's Temperament Sorter (Keirsey and Bates 1988). Both systems posit four dimensions: extraversion (Jung's preferred spelling) (E) versus introversion (I), Sensing (S) versus Intuiting (N), Feeling (F) versus Thinking (T), and Judging (J) versus Perceiving (P). The first three dimensions are based on Jungian categories. Myers and Briggs suggested the fourth, and Keirsey adopted it. The individual dimensions are discussed below.[3]

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I) Extraverts derive their energy and values from the external world. They seek interaction with people and tend to have many friendships, some deep and some superficial. They feel energized by a day full of intensive meetings or highly interactive work (depending, of course, on the subject matter). In mentoring E teachers, mentors need to invest time in personal interaction, although many Extraverts are satisfied with interaction received in group activities. E teachers can very easily exhaust I mentors—and still have energy to spare.

In contrast, Introverts derive their energy and values from the internal world. They seek solitude and tend to have a few friendships, which are often very deep. At the end of an intensive meeting or a day full of highly interactive work, they need time to regenerate. In mentoring I teachers, mentors may need to meet with them one-on-one in a quiet environment away from group activities. If there is to be a difficult discussion, such as the topic of inadequacies in teaching performance, Introverts often need time before the meeting to prepare and after the meeting to sort through their reactions. E mentors may quickly tire I teachers. Therefore, some E mentors establish time limits for meetings.

Extraverts and Introverts *can* work together. Putting time limits on agenda items at meetings can hold the enthusiasm of Extraverts to manageable levels. Making different faculty members responsible for leading the discussion on each of the agenda items gives Introverted teachers the opportunity to participate on a near-equal basis with the Extraverts. So does publishing the agenda in advance, so that I teachers can prepare comments. (Along the same lines, teacher-generated agendas can be very successful at giving I teachers confidence in participating actively in faculty meetings.) Another meeting activity that helps I teachers compete with their E peers for the floor is to go around the table at the beginning of the meeting to see if anyone has something to add to the agenda and at the end of the meeting to see if anyone has something still to say. Tannen (1994) suggests the Japanese idea of *nemawashi*, in which the meeting leader meets with each attendee privately to collect conflicting ideas and work out issues in advance so that the meetings can become places where consensus is reached. (Although Tannen's point was in reference to giving equal opportunity to both men and women at business meetings, the same principle can be applied to Introverts and Extraverts at faculty meetings.)

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Sensing (S) and Intuiting (N)

Sensing types are grounded in the here and now. For them, the most important time is today. They pay attention to the physical world around them, noticing details. They prefer to make decisions based on concrete reality and are convinced by statistics and facts. In mentoring S teachers, mentors need to provide detailed information, facts, and statistics—especially if they want to convince them of something. S teachers often frustrate N mentors with their lack of acceptance of assertions or new ideas. The problem is usually not the "difficult" S teacher; it is the lack of experience and insight that the typical N mentor has in marshaling fact-based arguments. Where "seeing is believing" to the S teacher, "faith in oneself" is the modus operandi of the N mentor.

Intuiting types look to the future. For them, the most important time is tomorrow. They pay attention to the world of ideas, noticing concepts. They prefer to make decisions based on possibility--actually, multiple and often grand possibilities—and are convinced by gut feelings and insights. In mentoring N teachers, mentors need to provide a theoretical construct and rationale. Mentors can set the stage for self-conviction but may need to wait until the N teacher has analyzed, reorganized, and rethought his or her opinion vis-à-vis the new input. N teachers can seem disorganized and "ungrounded" to S mentors, who may not value the N teacher's innovative (or unorthodox) approaches to teaching—and to life.

Sensing people and Intuitive people *can* work together. In setting goals as a team, conflict can be minimized by keeping in mind that Sensing individuals prefer simple, quickly attainable goals. Kroeger and Thuesen (1992) contend that Sensing people use the principles of KISS (Keep It Simple, Stupid) as their model of life. Intuitives, however, tend to set challenging and inspirational goals. In planning a program change (e.g., undertaking an experiment in Languages Across the Curriculum—a popular emendation to contemporary foreign language department offerings), N teachers can be counted on to establish the long-term, strategic goals and S teachers to put numbers, dates, and preliminary steps to the goals. Separating planning tasks in this way can maintain harmony on a team that might be frustrated by a full-group activity in which all team members participate in both establishing the strategic vision and writing the action plan. (While all teachers ultimately need to agree to both the strategy and the tactics, they all do not have to be involved in developing both.)

Trouble can arise when the Intuitive members of a group present far more goals, ideas, and possibilities than the Sensing members can handle. The Sensing individuals may become nervous and criticize the ideas on the grounds of feasibility. In response, the Intuitive people in the group may feel that their wonderful, futuristic thoughts are not being taken seriously, and they sometimes consider the other group members to be reactionaries. What can be done in such a situation? Sometimes the mentor can help a conflicted group like this to pare down the list of potential actions, thus pleasing the Sensing members, while praising the innovation of the Intuitives in the group, thus maintaining a balance between the needs of the Intuitive and the Sensing individuals.

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Feeling (F) and Thinking (T)

Feeling people value other people in highly personal ways. They will tell a white lie to avoid hurting someone else's feelings. They show caring with words, as well as actions, and they want to be respected for

their hard work. In mentoring Feeling individuals, Thinking mentors might remember that F teachers respond to praise for their efforts, value loyalty, and only experience comfort when there is *esprit de corps* among colleagues. F teachers relate best to mentors they consider kind and caring. For T mentors, F teachers can seem emotionally demanding and needy, when they really are not. T supervisors tend to keep their own feelings under control and invisible, although they are not at all reticent to let their opinions be known. With a primarily F staff, there can be advantages in sharing feelings, however uncomfortable that may be for a T mentor.

New teachers, adjunct faculty, and even TAs sometimes have rich backgrounds. Newness to the specific foreign language program does not always equate to newness to the teaching field. Talented teachers, and even very experienced ones, still need personal growth and mentoring within the organization. Such teachers, when Fs, take input much more readily if their experience and skills are acknowledged and appreciated.

Thinking individuals value principle. They tell the truth, even when it causes hurt feelings. They show caring with actions rather than with kind words, which they often consider awkward or unnecessary. They want to be respected for their competence. In mentoring Thinking people, mentors need to understand that T teachers can be harder on themselves than any supervisor would be. F mentors who praise efforts even when results are poor may lose the respect of T teachers, especially when T teachers know that the quality of their own work leaves something to be desired. One T employee received an e-mail from his F mentor: "I know you did not want to do the task that I assigned but did it anyway; thank you for your effort; it is very much appreciated." The Thinking employee looked up at a colleague who had been reading over his shoulder and commented, "I didn't need that." Being praised for effort can make T teachers think that they are being manipulated. (One reason that T mentors do not praise F teachers often enough for their efforts is because such praise seems condescending to the T.)

On the other hand, attitudes toward praise and encouragement are occasionally fuzzy. For example, sometimes the T individual secretly wants to be praised, all the while acting as though praise is inessential. Such a person might find it hard to praise others but might need some overt praise when a job is well done or when a particularly difficult subtask is completed. The good mentor tries to assess the individual's need for praise and encouragement.

The T–F dimension seems to be the most difficult one in which to transcend differences. The value systems of Ts and Fs are nearly

diametrically opposed, although, as we have just seen with the topic of praise, the lines are not always firmly drawn. F mentors with principally T staffs may need to prepare for meetings by converting values-based ideas into logical arguments. T mentors with principally F staffs may need to find overt ways of showing appreciation that do not necessarily come naturally to them: flowers, a handwritten note, or a pat on the back.

In addition, mentors can help their working teams or faculties to understand the key T–F differences. Mentors can teach T employees to give F colleagues a little of the overt compassion and caring that they need and can suggest that F employees turn down the expression of feelings and highlight logic when working with T colleagues. Mentors can help Ts and Fs to avoid burning each other up in spontaneous combustion based on their differences. Through sharing information about these differences, mentors can enhance the likelihood of Fs and Ts getting along and being productive together.

Mentoring in Keeping with Differences in Judging (J) and Perceiving (P)

Judgers like an ordered world. They work to deadline, prefer to do one task after another, and are more comfortable after questions have been decided. In contexts in which P teachers are more comfortable, J teachers can become very frustrated. "Just tell us what to do, and we'll do it," they often say in exasperation at brainstorming sessions that last too long for their patience. Mentors can delegate tasks to J teachers more effectively by putting information in writing, making tasks specific, giving a deadline, and avoiding multiple assignments (although there are some J teachers who can handle many different tasks at the same time).

Perceivers, on the other hand, like an open world. They work best when they have freedom, prefer to work on many tasks at the same time, and feel better while options remain open. In mentoring a Perceiving teacher, mentors need to allow choice and flexibility when possible. Reminding a P teacher of deadlines ahead of time may also help. P teachers may benefit from time management training that helps them convert their "open" sense of time to the "closed" sense of time that most institutions prefer.

Js and Ps often experience conflict over the need for closure. Js claim that Ps procrastinate, and Ps insist that Js jump to conclusions. The greatest disagreement between Perceivers and Judgers occurs around issues of time. According to Kroeger and Thuesen (1992), "when it comes to time management, it is a judger's world, hands down" (p. 87). They point out that good time-planners are the winners in contemporary society. For example, airlines reward early ticket purchase, banks reward long-term asset planning, and schools reward

students who turn in papers on time. (In the academic world, punctuality routinely beats brilliance.) Kroeger and Thuesen label this "a conspiracy of judgers" (p. 88). By assigning committee work, mentor-supervisors can accommodate the talents of both J and P teachers without causing frustration. P teachers can work on brainstorming solutions to thorny issues, and J teachers can develop and conduct new pilot projects (that eventually generate more thorny issues).

This might not solve all J–P conflicts, of course. There will still be P individuals who will delay finalization of a project until the eleventh hour, sometimes for the thrill of living on the edge of disaster, and at other times to take in as much pertinent information as possible. At the same time, there will still be J individuals who will push the P people to be more serious, to stop being lazy, and to get the job done. To a great extent, however, misunderstandings about the nature and meaning of potential J–P conflicts can be alleviated by straightforward discussion.

Cognitive Differences

Many systems and instruments exist to help mentors study cognitive differences and structure their mentoring process. One of the most useful is the Gregorc scale (Gregorc 1982). Another important set of dimensions in the work place is the concept of a holistic-atomistic difference in approach to cognitive processing. These two sets of cognitive style categories can serve as examples of how to apply knowledge of cognitive differences to mentoring situations.[4]

The Gregorc Scale The Gregorc system is composed of two axes: abstract-concrete and random-sequential. These axes yield four cognitive types: abstract-random (AR), abstract-sequential (AS), concrete-sequential (CS), and concrete-random (CR).

Abstract-random individuals learn through observation. They process information theoretically and organize information in an individualized fashion. In fact, pre-organization of information can frustrate them. Advanced organizers in the classroom are anathema to ARs. They typically question the motivation for things: why something works or why they should become involved in something—even, why someone should mentor them. That last question certainly has to be answered before mentoring can be undertaken. In mentoring AR teachers, mentors might use videotapes, visual information, and class observation (by the AR teacher) to share ideas. Opening one's own classrooms to visitation by the AR teacher can be very helpful. Setting an example can provide much more education for the AR teacher than either written or spoken words.

Abstract-sequential individuals are quintessential book learners. They process information theoretically and expect imparted knowledge to be organized in advance. AS teachers usually want mentoring. Their questions most often center on a factual core: what needs to be done, what is important, what criteria will be used to assess them, and the like. In mentoring AS teachers, traditional classroom approaches work fine. The most common problem for AS teachers is understanding other styles because most of this type have always been excellent students in traditional environments. They tend to equate lack of success in foreign language learning with lack of effort.

Concrete-sequential individuals prefer hands-on learning. They learn by doing and expect information to be organized in advance. For CS teachers, knowing how something works is important. Knowing "how" for CS teachers means being aware of all the steps involved and being able to accomplish those steps themselves. Trying to understand an abstraction for them is often incomplete comprehension, accompanied by an inability to transfer the understanding to new environments. In mentoring CS teachers, the most successful mentors provide samples, step-by-step instructions, and the opportunity for practice.

Here we need to diverge for a true story about CS teachers encountering AS mentors. Never underestimate the drama and potential stress of such an encounter. Several years ago in Siberia, out-of-style mentoring set two dedicated groups of professionals against each other. After a week of extensive faculty development, the mentors in charge of a project to redesign English, French, and German national curricula asked the teachers responsible for writing the new curricula to produce examples of how the information learned at the workshop would affect their course development efforts. What the mostly AS mentors expected to see as "examples" were templates that could be used in writing a wide range of lessons. What the mostly CS teachers presented were detailed, unique, and complete sample lessons. The mentors reacted with anger and the teachers with near-tears—until they both realized how their cognitive differences had colored their expectations and interpretations, after which they were able to reestablish a collegial relationship.

Concrete-random individuals prefer to use trial and error in most of their endeavors. They learn by doing, especially when the "doing" is their own decision, and are frustrated by material that has been "predigested" (i.e., organized) for them. An important question for them often strikes fear in many supervisors and mentors: "What if . . . ?" CR individuals are great experimenters and risk-takers, whether they work in in foreign language teaching or in another profession. In mentoring CR teachers, many of whom are also NT personality types,

mentors would be well forewarned to keep hands off and to provide support for the CR's creativity. Allowing CR teachers to fail and to learn from their failures is more important than ensuring that CR teachers always do things right or always succeed. Watching a new teacher fail is often a frustrating experience for non-CR mentors. However, CR teachers' emotional reactions are quite different. They tend to look at failure simply as one method of learning, and a useful one at that. So mentors (often considered unnecessary by CR teachers) fare best when they allow the CR teacher room for experimentation and innovative risk-taking. CR mentors can be very successful and creative at mentoring all kinds of teachers and often actually prefer the so-called "difficult" people. On the other hand, mentors with different cognitive styles can find CR teachers both difficult in general and difficult to mentor. What the CR teacher wants is a validator, a devil's advocate for new ideas, and a supporter who will stand by until needed. F mentors with other cognitive styles often feel "unneeded" and, therefore, experience difficulty in relating to CR teachers.

All four types can work together harmoniously, productively, and in a learning-oriented way. In developing a new curriculum, for example, CR teachers can be relied upon to devise innovative approaches, ARs to obtain the needed observations and feedback, the AS teachers to research the options, and CS teachers to determine the ways in which to implement a given approach and the steps to take in doing so. Given this kind of style-oriented assignment of responsibilities, even the most junior faculty member can bring real talent to the task, and all faculty can grow in significant ways by learning from each other.

Atomistic and Holistic Differences in Cognitive Processing A number of constructs, or styles, have been suggested that indicate a dichotomy in how individuals approach mental processes. The best-known dichotomy might well be the left brain (verbal), right brain (pictorial) distinction.[5] Others include synthetic (assembly) and analytic (disassembly) differences.[6] Still others have proposed a global (processing at the "forest," or big picture, level) versus analytic (processing at the "tree," or small pieces, level).[7] Most recently, Ehrman and Leaver (1997) have proposed the E&L Construct that divides cognitive style into two overarching domains: synoptic and ectenic (from the Greek word meaning *extension* or *déroulement*).[8] In essence, synopsis refers to the tendency to view the world as holistic and ectasis to the tendency to see the world as atomistic.

Holistic teachers need to be able to see the "big picture" before they can apply new teaching techniques or otherwise grow. A large

collection of details, no matter how well organized, tends to be meaningless to them, but the big picture helps them sort through even the messiest assortment of details. Mentors who would make a significant contribution to holistic teachers' growth must teach them to work in an atomistic world, since most academic environments are atomistic. The great irony in all of this is that foreign language teachers, as well as foreign language students who learn languages easily at the earlier proficiency levels, i.e., those levels usually found in university programs, tend to be holistic (synoptic, right-hemisphere dominant, etc.) learners (Leaver 1986).[9]

In mentoring atomistic teachers, mentors also need to provide details, but for a different reason. Details are the mechanisms by which atomistic teachers understand and learn. Atomistic teachers and students may be the minority in language programs, but they are there. Further, the small amount of research available does indicate that atomistic (ectenic, left-hemisphere dominant, etc.) learners who continue foreign language study long enough ultimately reach higher levels of proficiency than do holistic learners, perhaps thanks to their innate abilities to monitor their language for accuracy of grammar and precision of lexicon (Leaver 1986). Therefore, mentors need to provide atomistic teachers with sufficient detail for task accomplishment.

Holistic and atomistic teachers are complementary and can work well together in a co-teaching environment. Holistic teachers can teach students such strategies as using context and hypothesis formation, and atomistic teachers can teach them such strategies as word analysis and hypothesis confirmation. Both sets of strategies are needed in a communicative classroom, and students, too, will be mixed between holistic and atomistic.

Modality Differences

The category of modality differences has several other labels, such as sensory preferences and perceptual styles. The most useful distinctions for the teaching workplace include the dimensions of visual, auditory, and motor styles.[10]

The Visual Modality Visual individuals prefer to acquire information through sight. Mentors, in working with visual teachers, can facilitate learning and communication by using visual support. In terms of instructional skills, they can teach non-visual teachers to assist visual learners in their classrooms through such practices as extensive use of the blackboard, providing written handouts to accompany audio texts, and allowing visual learners to read through listening material in advance.

In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, mentors can assist visual teachers by providing handouts of critical information at faculty meetings. (However, mentors would do well to remember that giving a handout before a discussion will probably set up a contest for the teacher's attention—and very likely, the written word will win. Mentors should also be aware that the desired listening will often fail to occur for visual individuals without the assistance provided by the handout. Typically, strongly visual people fidget and worry about the lack of a handout and do not hear what is being said.)

When asked to implement programs that rely on auditory or kinesthetic input over visual input (such as in the Audiolingual Method or early stages of Total Physical Response), visual teachers can become resistant. Since they need visual support to learn, their natural assumption is that students do, too. The current taboo in some circles on the use of flashcards, considered a decontextualized and, therefore ineffective, means of presenting vocabulary, calls forth vigorous disagreement from some visual learners, whose own vocabulary reserves often have been developed as a result of much work with flashcards. Mentors who understand the source of such resistance can take the right steps to reduce it.

The Auditory Modality Auditory individuals prefer to acquire information through sound. Auditory learners learn best when listening to a broadcast or participating in a discussion, and some do learn quite well from reading aloud, regardless of the results of generic research (which has not included perceptual style as a variable) that shows oral reading to be ineffective. In terms of instructional skills, mentors may have to teach auditory teachers to move beyond discussion in the foreign language classroom in order to facilitate learning for visual and kinesthetic learners. Non-auditory teachers can be encouraged to bring in video and audio tapes, include classroom discussion on lesson themes, and make tapes of reading assignments for their auditory students. In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, auditory teachers learn best when mentors take the time to discuss ideas with them, rather than expecting them to be able to incorporate ideas after reading about them. Not usually exceptionally skilled readers—after all, they do not choose to spend leisure time reading—auditory learners can resist extensive reading assignments as a precursor to methodological discussions. Mentors who understand that auditory learners do not read as rapidly or with as much pleasure as their visual counterparts can organize their faculty development sessions accordingly.

The Motor Modality Motor individuals prefer to acquire information through motion. Two categories exist for such people: mechanical learners and kinesthetic learners (Leaver 1998). Mechanical learners use their fine motor muscles for learning; kinesthetic learners use gross motor muscles. The kinesthetic teacher, or at least the one who allows his or her movement propensities to be manifested freely in the classroom, is something of a rarity; the educational process tends to eliminate or at least discourage kinesthetic learners from higher education. There may be an anti-kinesthetic bias in many schools beyond the elementary grades, yet there are probably more "closet kinesthetic" teachers than we realize—teachers who have suppressed their true natures in order to fit into relatively static educational systems and who have been able to access other modalities (perhaps a secondary preference) successfully. Mentors might help such teachers to overcome their fear of institutional bias against movement and to feel free to help their own students move expressively around the classroom through drama and games.

In terms of instructional skills, mentors may need to show non-kinesthetic teachers how to incorporate elements of TPR (Asher 1988) and other physical activities into classrooms with large numbers of kinesthetic learners. In Slavic languages, using a treasure hunt to teach verbs of motion can be especially effective for kinesthetic learners. As much as this approach seems like common sense, far too often non-kinesthetic teachers ask students to complete workbook pages, carry out in-seat dialogue recitation, or provide oral answers to textbook exercises. In mentoring motor teachers, mentors may need to make allowances for their need to use their muscles, letting them doodle or stand up at faculty meetings or move around the room, instead of sitting still, during individual counseling sessions—or even better, taking a walk together when thorny issues need to be discussed.

In terms of mentor-mentee interactions, motor teachers who must sit for long periods of time often resist the input being provided, not because of philosophical disagreements but because of frustration at being forced into what feels like a physical straitjacket. Mentors who realize this can determine ways to meet motor teachers' need for movement while accomplishing more sedentary goals.

Differences in Conceptual Tempo

Another aspect of style is conceptual tempo. Conceptual tempo refers to the slowness or rapidity with which an individual thinks before taking action, typically in a learning situation. Conceptual tempo is somewhat like but not identical to the Judging-Perceiving dichotomy

(see the previous section on Personality Type Differences). Conceptual tempo contains four possibilities: slow-accurate, slow-inaccurate, fast-accurate, and fast-inaccurate. Western culture considers fast-accurate to be ideal and slow-inaccurate to be a serious blight. Of the four options, the most extensively researched in educational settings are slow-accurate (Reflective) and fast-inaccurate (Impulsive).

Reflectives are defined by researchers as those who take the time to deliberate systematically before taking action, who are accurate in problem solving, and who show good academic and work performance. Researchers view Impulsives as those who act very rapidly, use a hit-or-miss approach to problem solving, and have substandard academic and work performance.

However, among non-researchers the term Reflective has now come to include both slow-accurate and slow-inaccurate, and the term Impulsive has begun to cover both fast-accurate and fast-inaccurate. Thus, popular folk usage has made ambiguous the excellent-performance aspect of the Reflective style and the poor-performance aspect of the Impulsive style. Although this change is a distortion of the initial concept of conceptual tempo, it has become fairly pervasive in many areas of life, including (it would seem) the mentoring area.

Mentoring is most comfortable when mentor and mentee have a common conceptual tempo, as in Reflective mentor/Reflective mentee or Impulsive mentor/Impulsive mentee. Problems immediately arise when the mentor and mentee have different conceptual tempos. The Reflective mentor wants the Impulsive mentee to slow down and reflect on issues at hand, while the Impulsive mentor wants the Reflective mentee to quit cogitating and *do* something. Mentees have equally strong feelings about their mentors in situations where conceptual tempos clash. Such conflicts can be handled best when both mentor and mentee understand what is happening and refrain from making negative judgments about each other. More specific suggestions about Reflectives and Impulsives appear later in the section on mentoring the individual.

Biological Differences

Biological differences also affect teaching, teamwork, and mentoring. These differences include but are not limited to biorhythms, sustenance, location and environment, and gender. Research on these differences has been conducted by educators (Dunn and Dunn 1978) and by biological psychologists (Birch 1992; Treisman 1984).

Biorhythms Some teachers are wide awake at 6:00 A.M. Others awaken only as the day ends. We each have our own biorhythm, and,

unfortunately, that biorhythm does not always fit well with institutional schedules. Noticing when a new teacher is most productive and scheduling counseling discussions or personal growth opportunities for those times can result in better responses. The same is true for scheduling meetings. If the majority of faculty is still asleep during the early morning, scheduling an 8:00 A.M. faculty meeting is counterproductive.

Sustenance Some teachers think better with something in their stomachs or while actually eating or drinking. Although it is not a common practice, allowing those in need of physical sustenance for brain activity to eat or drink something during counseling sessions or meetings can facilitate discussions. In fact, individual counseling sessions may be most effective if held at a coffee shop. On the other hand, teachers who do not need physical sustenance for learning may be distracted and less able to concentrate if dragged to a coffee shop to talk.

Location and Environment As they say, "some like it hot, some like it cold." Some like it dark, some like it light. Some like background music, some like silence. Thus, one person's castle is another person's prison. In meeting with new teachers for discussion, mentors would do well, if possible, to situate the discussion in a locale that is conducive to learning. One option is to meet in the teacher's office. There, the teacher has usually arranged the environmental controls (heat, light, and sound) in ways that are as optimal as possible for that person. A comfortable environment can make a significant difference in how well counseling sessions are received—to say nothing about the reduced threat associated with being "at home" rather than in the boss's office.

Mentoring the Individual

Mentoring individual teachers effectively is the cornerstone to mentoring the group and managing the program effectively. Mentoring in style is the key to mentoring individuals, whether the focus be instruction in foreign language education theory and practice, counseling, evaluation, or support of personal growth.

Instruction in Foreign Language Education Theory and Practice

When development of good teaching techniques is accomplished in accordance with teachers' styles, the overall performance of new teachers improves more rapidly. For some new teachers (e.g., visual

S Introverts), assigned readings are likely to be highly informative. or others, seminars are excellent; this is especially true for auditory nd kinesthetic CS Extraverts. For still others, such as visual AR In- overts, observations of master classes, demonstration classes, or eers' classes can be very helpful. An effective teacher development rogram will contain all of these activities in measure. In the very best rograms, teachers will be able to select the activities that work best or them; there the mentor's role is help teachers determine the est activities for their development portfolio. Activities such as co- eaching and modeling can instruct teachers in style-flexible ways.

o-Teaching One of the most effective ways to develop teaching tech- niques among new teachers is co-teaching, or two teachers in the lassroom teaching together. The second teacher can be an experi- nced colleague or a supervisor-mentor. Co-teaching is useful in many ways, such as building relationships, developing specific techniques, nd helping teachers learn how to differentiate among learners. 'reparing and conducting lessons together helps the mentor see the iew teacher's approach and instincts, as well as developing trust be- ween mentor and teacher. There is the added advantage of conduct- ng formative evaluation (evaluation that occurs during the levelopment phase, rather than at the very end). Formative evaluation llows on-the-spot assistance and immediate improvement, whereas a ost-observation discussion might be merely a critique that does not ielp the teacher very much. For many teachers, particularly those who ike spontaneity and do not need to have in-depth reflection before naking instructional changes, such immediate feedback is very effec- ive. Supervisors have often found that they can significantly reduce he amount of calendar time required to assist a new teacher by teach- ng together with the teacher.

For an Extraverted teacher, co-teaching tends to be a more com- ortable activity than it is for an Introverted teacher. Although experi- nce can help Introverted teachers to be more comfortable, most I eachers, regardless of experience, seem to need time to adjust to the dea of co-teaching, as well as time to prepare for such a class.

New teachers also need to learn how to apply to the classroom the same principles of differentiation that the mentor applies to mentoring. The most crucial principles are: (1) teaching all students equally does not mean treating them the same, and (2) treating all students the same ends to result in unfair and unequal treatment because of learning style contrasts and other differences among them (Leaver 1998). Just as men- tors need to learn to mentor in style, teachers need to learn to teach in

style. In many cases, these concepts are alien to new teachers and take some time to assimilate. The co-teaching format has helped teachers learn these concepts in a realistic, concrete, and interesting way.

Modeling If mentors want teachers to use learner-centered instruction in the classroom, including showing sensitivity to style differences, the mentor must model this behavior in the supervisory relationship. Few of today's teachers were educated in learner-centered classrooms, so models are rare. Mentors most likely will have to break the mold that results in teachers teaching in the way that they were taught. Today's foreign language teachers were typically trained via Grammar-Translation, Audiolingual, or Cognitive Code methods that were clearly effective for many of them, and the natural instinct is to reproduce these methods in their own classrooms.

Mentors can model learner-centered instruction in the classroom. In their lesson plans, they can include activities for a wide variety of learners. When students experience learning difficulties, they can use learning style information to help with troubleshooting, and they can show new teachers how to do all these things.

Mentors can also model other very important attributes: risk-taking; courtesy; democracy; asking, not demanding; and empathy in place of apathy. Risk-taking is important not only in language learning but also in faculty teams where new teaching concepts are being implemented or in cutting-edge programs that are intended to remain cutting edge. Risk-taking, of course, comes most readily to CR teachers, especially NT-CR teachers. Other teachers may need the mentor's support, encouragement, and protection in order to be willing to take risks.

Even in modeling, mentors should be aware of style differences. Modeling alone may be enough to effect change for AR teachers. However, other teachers may need more explicit communication, requiring mentors to explain aspects of what is being modeled before and/or after the modeling.

Counseling

Counseling is more than a discussion with a mentee. Effective counseling requires planning and rehearsing, as well as actually conducting the counseling session.

Planning Planning counseling sessions should include not only the topics to be addressed but also the attitude to be taken: calm, firm, or tentative, among a wide variety of choices. The last (tentative) attitude

sometimes works well in removing the walls built by some kinds of difficult teachers, especially F teachers, who, by nature, want to help people. Reversing the relationship so that, by complying with the mentor's request, the new teacher clearly does a service for the mentor can seem to put that teacher in control, remove defensive barriers (when one is taking the offensive, one does not need a fortress), and gain the cooperation needed for team work.

Part of planning also involves determining when to conduct the counseling sessions. When problems occur, Impulsive mentors, who tend to think and act simultaneously, usually want to solve them immediately. They rush into a counseling session with the teacher, which can make the problem worse, not better, especially if the teacher is Reflective, i.e., thinks before acting. Reflective mentors, on the other hand, usually put space between the time a problem occurred and the scheduling of the counseling session. If the time is reasonably short and used for the purpose of reflection and psychological preparation by the teacher and planning by the mentor, the time is well-spent. Often, though, too much time passes because Reflective mentors are preparing psychologically, and the teacher is unaware of the problem. By the time the problem gets addressed, the details have been forgotten. For that reason, Reflective supervisors can sometimes unfairly get the reputation of being unwilling to take action when needed.

Rehearsing Associated with planning is rehearsing. Controlling the emotions released when one's "buttons" have been pressed by mentee reactions is accomplished more easily when the counseling session is not the first place that the mentor encounters these things. Rehearsing with a colleague or friend of the same personality type or cognitive style as the teacher can ensure the smooth conduct of difficult counseling sessions.

Conducting the Session In spite of good planning and conscientious rehearsing, counseling sessions that do not take into account style differences can quickly disintegrate—or worse, harm the mentor-mentee bond. Extraverts and Impulsives need to give Introverts and Reflectives time to respond. Productive silence is okay. Js need to allow Ps to present a plan of action at a later date if a plan is needed to improve teaching. Holistic mentors need to provide details and be prepared for questions that may seem nit-picking. T mentors need to be psychologically prepared for the emotions of F mentees, and so on and so forth. Counseling sessions conducted in style can be both productive and satisfying.

Evaluation

Mentors usually have dual roles: development and evaluation. These are not antagonistic functions. Rather, evaluation provides guidance in determining development activities and assesses their effectiveness.

Unfortunately, all too often mentors find evaluation uncomfortable. This attitude is frequently the result of unpleasant experiences in evaluating and being evaluated. However, if evaluation is done in accordance with style and through the separation of formative and summative forms of evaluation, it can be a positive force in a teacher's professional life and in the mentor-mentee relationship.

Both formative and summative evaluations provide the opportunity for mentoring but in very different ways. Formative evaluation brings out coaching traits in a mentor, while summative evaluation brings out analytic and diagnostic traits. Formative evaluation, the purpose of which is to foster growth and improvement, and summative evaluation, the purpose of which is to assess, rate, and possibly reward or punish, should always be implemented separately. Stanley and Popham (1988) emphasize this point, arguing: "Many administrators who have been thrust into the formative-summative evaluator role will protest that they can, having 'earned the trust' of their teachers, carry out both teacher evaluation functions simultaneously, [but] they are deluding themselves" (p. 59). Trying to save time in this way cheats the teacher of the range of mentoring (and time) he or she has a right to expect from a mentor.

Style differences play an important role in the conduct of both kinds of evaluations, and accommodation of individualized needs can make evaluating new teachers more comfortable and effective. It can be difficult, for example, to evaluate NTs because while they are their own most severe critics, they do not readily accept the mentors' authority to judge them based solely on positional authority. The mentor must have earned respect for the NT teacher to accept the mentor's judgment. F teachers can be devastated by negative elements in evaluations, especially if T mentors fail to sandwich the negative elements between positive elements. AS and SJ teachers, especially those who are atomistic, may want more details than a holistic NT mentor, even with the best of intentions, may be able to provide. (After all, to provide details, one has to notice them, and noticing details is *not* the strong suit of holistic NTs.) Knowing the style-related preferences of mentees helps mentors take the steps to ensure a smooth rating process and not be surprised at the end.

Formative Evaluation While positively intended, formative evaluation is often seen as negative. For that reason, reframing the evaluation in positive terms is essential. Positive motivation wields great power, whereas negative emotions can shut down working memory (Goleman 1995). Pressing further at that point is ineffective. .

How does one deal with negative emotions when they appear? First, one should not expect a rational response. Few new teachers can be fully rational at the outset when approached with a list of deficiencies in their performance; the threat to their ego and to their sense of security is too great, especially if they are NTs. So the most logical thing a mentor can do is to accept whatever response is given. Second, one should wait out the response. Maybe in a day or week the teacher will be able to approach the evaluation with less negative emotion. Therefore, setting a future date for further discussion can help, especially for Reflective and Introverted teachers. (It can also have the opposite effect on Impulsive, Extraverted teachers, who may use that time to marshal a rebuttal.) An important part of formative evaluation is self-evaluation. Teachers who carry out "reflective teaching" (keeping journals, monitoring, taping/observing their own behaviors, and assessing the success of various techniques and activities) are more apt to show continuous improvement than teachers who rely exclusively on student and mentor feedback. Teachers who are less defensive with regard to constructive suggestions for the improvement of teaching practices tend to practice reflective teaching; these teachers are more likely to carry on a productive and insightful dialogue with mentors at counseling sessions.

Summative Evaluation Of all the mentor-mentee relationships, summative evaluation tends to be the most stressful and can lead to acrimony and a breakdown in the relationship. Before improvement in teaching can be expected—and even highly experienced and successful teachers can be expected to improve—teachers need to know program goals (important for NT teachers), work requirements (important for AS teachers), and performance standards (important for SJ teachers). Troubled programs frequently experience lack of success not because of teacher or administrator incompetence but because clear mission statements, written goals, and published performance standards—the objective criteria that make possible the fair management of all teachers—are missing. Summative evaluation is much less threatening and easier to defend when everyone knows the criteria for success. Rating, rewarding, and conducting formative discussions and guiding the development of new teachers in accordance with these standards make

mentoring and implementation of summative evaluations much easier. Further, establishing consistent expectations for classroom visits and for interpretation, use, and discussion of data collected during observations significantly reduces perceived threat for nearly any type of teacher. Allowing teacher input to the evaluation ensures both a more accurate evaluation and a more effective one.

Support of Personal Growth

As in learning to teach, personal development activities are more effective when they are carried out in accordance with style. Sending CS teachers to off-site, experiential workshops may be the best option for them, whereas AR teachers may prefer to observe successful peers on-site. Sending Introverted Thinkers to the library or their own classrooms for research is as effective as working directly together with Extraverted Sensing individuals, but the opposite combinations are apt to fail. Explaining the reasons for the difference in treatment is sometimes far less difficult than mentors think. New teachers frequently know their style preferences, at least on a subconscious level, and will instinctively choose the mode that works best for them. Talking about these matters openly and forthrightly can help the teachers and the mentor.

Professional Skills Many mentors forget that personal development includes career preparation and enhancement. There is a tendency to focus on short-term goals—the teaching requirements of the current institution and how to meet those requirements—leaving long-term goals forgotten. Rifkin (2000) suggests that long-term goals are essential to the formation of a future professoriate. Covey (1991) explains the existence of this often overlooked, critical set of activities as being lost through improper time management that puts urgent-not-important tasks ahead of important-not-urgent considerations.[11] Teaching a TA to perform well in the current classroom, to paraphrase the old Chinese proverb, feeds him or her for a day. Helping the TA to build a foundation in second language acquisition feeds him or her for a lifetime. Mentors who take the role of mentoring seriously should consider the long-term view. The real workplace is full of examples in which mentors have made a significant difference in the lives of their new teachers by being serious about their mentoring roles.

There is a caveat, however. In helping teachers with professional development, mentors should avoid placing their own biases into their mentees' minds. Mentors have a great deal of influence, and they must take care to use it wisely and provide balanced counsel rather than biased advice.

Empowerment Although authoritarianism is a common approach of new mentors, it can be found among some experienced mentors as well. It might well spring from the dichotomy that created much discussion in the 1990s: training or education as the goal of teaching. In our view, there is no discussion. Teachers, whose duties are far from mindless, repetitive, and stimulus-dependent, do not need training. What they do need, no matter how experienced, is continuing education, as does every professional, beginning with the would-be professional—the student in the classroom. To that effect, we note and underscore the words of Lalande:

> It dare not be forgotten that the mission of academia involves far more than training people to perform a skill—it is to educate our students, to make them sensitive to the power and beauty of the word, to contribute to the processes of critical thinking and cultural understanding, to liberate them from ethnocentric mindsets, and to invite them on and equip them for a journey of lifelong learning and growth (1991, p. 18).

If mentors want teachers to facilitate classroom activity, i.e., to educate students, then they need to model facilitation by educating and empowering teachers, allowing them the opportunity for critical thinking, liberating them from ethnocentric and egocentric mindsets, and equipping them for a lifelong journey of personal and professional growth.

Many ways exist to empower teachers. One is to give teachers a say in team matters. Another is to give them a say in choice of method or teaching practices (where that is appropriate and possible). To empower new teachers, mentors sometimes have to change their instinctive forms of support. When a new teacher brings a problem, called a "monkey" (Blanchard, Oncken, and Burrows 1990), to a mentor and the mentor promises to take care of the problem, the mentor has just taken on the care and feeding of the teacher's monkey. Given enough monkeys, the mentor quickly becomes a zookeeper, and teachers remain unempowered, with only one way to take care of their sick monkeys: bring them to the mentor. Rather than promising to take care of a problem, the wise mentor assists the teacher in figuring out how to take care of the problem on his or her own. In other words, the mentor shows the teacher how to feed or heal the monkey. With time, teachers working with monkey-free mentors arrive with a sick monkey, a description of symptoms, and some suggested cures. Helping a teacher select a cure is much easier for a mentor than running a monkey hospital.

When mentoring in style, the ways in which teachers, both experienced and new, are empowered depend on their style differences. CR-NTs need freedom and authority to pursue self-generated, innovative ideas. CS teachers need instructions and examples of how to do things on their own. AS teachers need templates as guidelines. AR teachers need the opportunity to observe how empowered teachers work.

Once empowered, teachers need support. Even seemingly self-directed teachers on the fast path to fame and glory need a cheerleader in their corner in times of insecurity and difficulty. Teachers who are attending school at the same time that they are teaching need periodic affirmation that the accumulation of experience and education will be worth the time, effort, and stress. New teachers need their mentors even in failure. In fact, they need them most in times of failure. Empowered employees who feel the support of their mentors are more likely to take the kinds of risks that are needed for effective teaching.

Remembering (or recognizing when) to support teachers comes least naturally to TJ mentors. Highly task-oriented, they sometimes forget that there are other motivations and other ways of providing support than working together on task completion. NT mentors, too, sometimes become irritated with the "neediness" of FP teachers (who want emotional support) and AS or CS teachers (who want informational support). Understanding the source of the neediness can go far in alleviating irritation.

The time invested in empowering mentees is worthwhile. Supportive mentors are frequently the first to receive invitations to graduations and award ceremonies. They are also usually the first to hear about good news in the mentees' life, and they are likely to be thanked in a dozen different ways from time to time. Clearly, teachers desire, need, and appreciate a mentor's support.

Mentoring the Group

While mentoring the group does, indeed, begin with mentoring the individual teacher, there are some aspects of mentoring the group that are unique at a program level. These include building teams, moderating organizational culture, building trust, building tolerance, and developing clear communication.

Team Building

Team building is an important part of mentoring, since teachers will nearly always work in some sort of team environment. At first, the team might be a group of TAs. Later, the team might be colleagues in a foreign language department. Even supervisors work on some sort of

team. Therefore, learning to be a team player is an important aspect of any new teacher's development.

New teachers learn more about being good team players when they join a supportive team that exhibits esprit de corps. When the mentor is the supervisor, building a collaborative team is incumbent upon the supervisor-mentor.

Moderating Organizational Culture

Every institution has an organizational culture, and new teachers assimilate more rapidly when there is a match between their values and organizational values—or when they are helped to accommodate to the dominant organizational culture while making a contribution in keeping with personal style preferences. Successful accommodation requires the supervisor-mentor, who understands the organizational culture and the institutional goals, to moderate that culture such that it can be understood and accepted by new teachers who may find it alien at first.

For T teachers, assimilation into a culture whose ideas conflict with their own can be very difficult, unless the mentor is open to challenges to theory and practices and prepared to demonstrate, as well as cite research that indicates, the feasibility and desirability of various aspects of the language program design. This is especially true for T teachers new to the organization but not new to teaching, e.g., former high school teachers who are now doctoral candidates.

Building Trust

Teams are built on common goals and trust. The common goal in a teaching situation is clear: effective teaching that results in student learning and satisfaction. To the extent that teachers work together, the overall quality of teaching programs is improved. Students feel the coordination that comes from team teaching, and teachers benefit from shared resources and ideas.

The sources of trust and the means of building trust, especially when the language department is large, are less clear. Trust requires willingly suspending suspicion and switching defensive mechanisms into the "off" position. For that to happen, teachers must feel that management is on their side. New teachers joining a team where trust is high are more likely to set aside disbelief than are those joining teams where trust is low. Trust is rarely built as a team activity. It is constructed in different ways with different teachers. For example, F teachers often need evidence of supervisor loyalty and kindness. T teachers need evidence that their mentors are knowledgeable in the

fields of foreign language education and second language acquisition. CR teachers need to know that they can fly away with the full comfort that comes from knowing that the nest will be available, should they want to return home. CS instructors need to know that there is a human instruction manual at their disposal, should they need it.

Building Tolerance

Tolerance must also be established among teachers on a team, and for that reason, it is important for teachers to understand style differences. Such understanding builds tolerance. Understanding style differences has another advantage: style categories provide labels for discussing conflicts without labeling individual teachers "good" or "bad."

Some of the most difficult team-building situations occur on cross-cultural teams. In the foreign language field, many, if not most, teams are cross-cultural in that they unite native speakers of the students' native language with native speakers of the target language. In some departments, this combination can lead to discrimination against the minority, which is, in a number of departments of the commonly taught languages, the non-native speaker (Valdés 1991). The mentor in such situations must set the tone for non-discrimination, promote productive disagreement, and bring humor into the workplace.

Non-Discrimination New teachers joining teams where there is zero tolerance for discrimination are more apt to find the kinds of support that they need in their early attempts at teaching. They are also less likely to exhibit discrimination in their own relationships on any basis: religion, ethnicity, gender, or style.

Productive Disagreement Appropriate disagreement can be very productive. "A good leader or team facilitator makes sure that enough friction is created to produce the sparks that make for a productive meeting" (Dichter 1987, p. 112). Disagreement, however, is only productive when accepted by all parties and when no repercussions occur for opinions that do not match those of the majority or of the mentor. In facilitating disagreements, mentors should be aware that different personality types react differently to arguments. NT teachers readily enter into disagreements with colleagues and just as readily walk away from them when finished. They are less likely to personalize negative comments arising from disagreements than are other types. NF teachers, on the other hand, seek harmony. Therefore, disagreements are unsettling to them, and they may need encouragement to enter into

hem. F teachers are quick to personalize disagreements and often hold grudges for long periods of time when they do not recognize the source of the anger.

Use of Humor Disagreement works best when balanced by humor and fun. People should want to come to work in the morning. In well-managed, well-mentored programs, teachers receive so much satisfaction and enjoyment at work that they stay late, often without noticing the time, and get involved with extracurricular activities, even leading them. In such programs, students are likely to flourish because their teachers are flourishing—because the supervisor-mentor has set the example for them and has made the workplace exciting, rewarding, and fun.

Developing Clear Communication

Communication is a complex issue. An open door policy not only helps foster communication, but it also allows the manager to get to know faculty members better. However, even in the most open relationships that have tremendous rapport, communication still fails from time to time. Making communication explicit and sending appropriate signals can do much to prevent communication errors.

Some mentors do not spend enough time to ensure that teachers have really understood what has been communicated. An explicit approach to communication takes time, but failure to communicate ultimately takes even more time. What kinds of things need to be communicated explicitly? CS teachers need explicit instructions. NT and CR teachers need explicit rationales. SJ and AS teachers need specific rules, content, and deadlines. SPs need to know the limits of choices that are available or permitted.

An important part of good communication is sending accurate signals. Not all these signals, however, are verbal. We have many ways to communicate: words, actions, body language, and presence.

Communicating with Words One of the most obvious ways in which we send signals is by words. Teachers, supervisors, and mentors tend to choose words that reflect their own styles. SJ teachers use words like "should," "ought," and "must." SP teachers use words like "choice," "may," and "flexible." NT teachers use words like "challenge," "analyze," and "goal," and NF teachers use words like "fun," "collaboration," and "serve." In some ways, teachers with different styles are speaking different dialects, and the style-aware mentor ends up being an interpreter.

Communicating with Actions Actions and behaviors are sometimes more powerful signals than words. Actions include both what mentors

do and what they choose not to do (or forget to do). One T mentor was astonished to learn that the source of a teacher's newly developed hostility was a forgotten packet of lesson plans that the teacher had prepared on her own and had proudly handed to the mentor, who put it into his overflowing in-box and did not see it for weeks. The message to the teacher was clear: the mentor did not like the lesson plans. Further, being an F, the teacher personalized that message: the mentor did not value her efforts. He could at least have acknowledged the time and energy she spent on the project. There was a happy ending in this case. The mentor learned about the lost materials, found them, and made his comments—along with his apologies.

Communicating with Body Language Body language sends signals, too. Mentors who say that they are open to other opinions and ideas but listen with their arms and legs crossed are sending mixed signals. Unfortunately, body language tends to speak louder than words. One of us used to complete paperwork while talking to her staff when she worked as a dean at one institution. A J who displays the polyactivity typical of Ps, she did not even notice that she was doing this, but she had apparently done it for months. When a new associate dean reported in, he and the assistant dean met with her to discuss the status of programs and the roles of members of the dean's staff, and, as usual, she simultaneously completed her ever-present paperwork, an activity that could obviously be interpreted as rude or as denigrating the significance of the conversation. The new associate dean shot a questioning look at the assistant dean, who explained, "Yes, sir, she processes paperwork while she listens and talks, but she clearly also hears and understands everything we say; we've tested her on several occasions." Needless to say, she now keeps her in-box out of reach so that she does not accidentally multi-task in the presence of others. The message sent was not the one she wanted received.

Communicating with Presence Even presence (or absence) can be a signal. When mentors are present, they signal that a task and the people involved with it are important. When they are absent, they send the opposite signal, that the planned activities are not important enough for the mentor to spend time on them. In one extremely large and unwieldy program that one of us managed (nearly 150 teachers and support staff), significant problems with organizational communication became quickly apparent when she first tried to meld teaching teams from several different programs into one unified new program. Therefore, she worked out a week-long training program on organizational communication with institutional staff trainers, put senior teachers in

charge at all levels of administration, including as acting dean, and spent 40 hours with the 15 managers undertaking training. The fact that she, as the upper management representative and mentor, was there for the entire training and planning seminar made a significant difference in developing an effective communication plan for the organization. Such presence and visibility come easier to Extraverts than to Introverts, who often must force themselves to go out among their mentees on a regular basis.

Conclusion

Given the positive results reported by language program directors who routinely mentor in style, we encourage all such directors to consider gradually incorporating some or all of the presented concepts into the way they approach the act of mentoring. In using style information to determine how to proceed with mentoring each teacher, some program directors (usually the Sensing types) prefer to have teachers first take one of the several available style inventories and then to discuss the validity and nature of the results with the individual teacher, since results can sometimes be influenced by non-style factors. Other program directors (usually the Intuitive types) prefer to observe teachers and then to discuss their perceptions of styles with individuals. Both approaches work.

For style-mediated programs, we further recommend that style terminology, or "type talk," become part of the professional life of the program. Talking about style differences with the teaching team, building shared terminology that is non-discriminatory in its characterization of personal differences, and providing an individualized approach to mentoring while also providing for the mentoring of the entire team of teachers in the program are important aspects of true mentoring in style.

McNeil (1987) suggests that the best business managers make choices for the long term, not for the short term. The same principle is equally important in academic language programs. Making choices for the long term means developing new teachers in ways that empower them and allow them to surpass the mentor. It means looking beyond the difficulty of the moment to the desired goal and determining how to reach that goal. In all cases, long-term goals are likely to be met only if the task of mentoring is considered a high priority duty.

The experience of the authors and others indicates that long-term (and short-term) goals are met more readily and with greater satisfaction when mentoring is done in style. The problem, to date, with mentoring advice and research is a focus on teachers as collectives and on

only those individual variables (such as motivation and competence) that are directly related to a teaching goal. In reality, what is needed is an understanding that people are unique entities who bring individualized packages of variables to the workplace, the classroom, and the teaching team. Many of these variables may not be directly related to a teaching goal, but they do indeed have an impact on teaching, personal growth, team spirit, and effectiveness. Therefore, effective mentoring depends on putting people first and concepts second. Mentoring in style gives the mentor a toolbox of instruments to use when the platitudes fail.

Notes

1. Magnan does address style in one sentence. However, she speaks only of the problems style differences between students and TAs may create for new TAs.

2. This field of inquiry has been called socionics, a term that is better known in Europe than in the United States. The socionics movement, whose publications first appeared in Latvia, uses Jungian typology for political and sociological analysis (Bulakov and Bojko 1992). More information can be found on the Internet: www.socionics.com.

3. The MBTI, which can be obtained from Consulting Psychologists Press and is administered by a trained psychologist (although there are many similar tests online, and there is even a $3 online version of the MBTI itself), determines each of the dimensions for each respondent. These dimensions result in a four-letter type (such as ENTJ). These combinations yield a total of 16 possible personality types. Keirsey and Bates (1988) determined that certain two-letter combinations, called temperaments, were the most salient for work (and other) interpersonal relationships. They labeled these "artisans" (SP), "rationals" (NT), "idealists" (NF), and "guardians" (SJ).

4. The cognitive styles discussed here are only a few of the suggested constructs that have appeared in recent years. Other commonly known styles include multiple intelligences (Gardner 1999), a Learning Styles Inventory that differentiates among styles associated with concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation, somewhat reminiscent of the Gregorc information acquisition categories (Kolb 1985), and a construct based on the division of Kolb's four categories into left-brain and right-brain dimensions, yielding eight styles (McCarthy 1997). Messick and Associates (1976) provides an overview to a wide range of cognitive styles; while this volume appears dated, it is not and is one of the few works to describe the commonly known differences, as well as lesser-known concepts, such as sharpeners (those who concentrate on differences) and levelers (those who concentrate on likenesses). Another overview, more recent and somewhat less comprehensive, was published by Sternberg (1997), who, in addition to his own theory of three kinds of intelligence, has incorporated

a number of cognitive style concepts into his work.

5. Hemispheric distinctions have two aspects: the physiological (in which the left hemisphere controls the right side of the body and vice versa; physiologically, one of the hemispheres tends to be dominant, creating such phenomena as preference for the use of one hand over the other) and the metaphoric (in which preferences for certain kinds of learning—verbal versus image, morphology versus intonation, language versus music—are assigned to the left or right hemisphere, in some ways paralleling physiology but used in a metaphoric sense). In our experience, this latter, cognitive difference is significant for language learners, but less so for mentor-mentee relationships.

6. This distinction proposes that synthetic learners use pieces to create a new model (or new whole), a process of assembling information (as in using examples to figure out a rule). For them, learning is construction. Analytic learners disassemble the whole into its parts in order to understand it better (as in studying the rule, then practicing it with examples). For them, learning is a process of reconstruction. This distinction can have an influence on any interaction where new information is being exchanged.

7. The global-analytic difference, one of the most persistent in the realm of cognitive styles, is a perplexing one because this difference is not a dichotomy. A global preference refers to perception, and an analytic preference refers to processing. For this reason, Ehrman and Leaver (1997) contend that there are two overlapping constructions within this dimension, the global (perceiving a wooded area as a forest) versus something they label particular (perceiving a wooded area as a collection of different kinds of trees), and the synthetic (process of assembly) versus the analytic (process of disassembly).

8. Each of these domains contains ten components that together represent the majority of cognitive styles found in contemporary literature. Thus, the E&L Construct seeks to simplify the rather chaotic conditions that mark the current study of cognitive styles. Correlational studies have been conducted on more than 800 students, validating the construct, which is still in the process of study and refinement.

9. Leaver's published research concentrated on cerebral dominance, one factor in determining the dominance of synopsis or ectasis for learning, in students and teachers of Russian and Ukrainian at the Foreign Service Institute only. This research grew out of informal surveys collected from students in a variety of languages (German, French, Spanish, and Russian) at the University of Pittsburgh in 1982–1983, showing essentially the same pattern: good language students tended to be right-hemisphere dominant and the majority of language students beyond first year courses, i.e., those who "liked" language study and voluntarily chose more of it, tended to be right-hemisphere dominant.

10. Other possible styles include gustatory and olfactory, which could have great meaning in elementary grades and even higher, but which educational institutions typically ignore and which do not play much of a

role in mentoring. It is interesting to note, however, that some of the best examples of mentoring came from the temples of ancient Egypt and involved training and developing of all of the senses in the persons being mentored.

11. In Covey's time management system, there are four categories of activities in any organization: urgent-important (Type 1), not urgent-important (Type 2), urgent-not-important (Type 3), and not-urgent-not-important (Type 4). Of the four categories, Category 2, in Covey's opinion, is the most critical for long-term program success.

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